



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

would seem, from its discovery in a lymphatic abscess by Bancroft, and in a lymph scrotum by Lewis, to have a peculiar aptitude for selecting the lymph channels for its habitat; a selective power not more remarkable than that which urges the trichina to lodge in muscular tissue. This is further borne out by the fact that its embryos—the *filaria sanguinis hominis*—are met with in the blood and the urine of the subjects of chyluria and nævoid (or lymphatic) elephantiasis.

Now, although the various discoveries which have been made—at the expense of so much patient research and at such various times that, as Dr. Cobbold remarked at the meeting, they form each distinct “epochs”—have enabled us to form the above complete sketch of the life-history of the parasite, there are lacunæ still to be filled up. Thus knowledge is wanted upon the growth and migration of the parent worm after it has gained entrance into the human body, also as to its duration of life, and particularly as to the question whether it can take on the power of a sexual reproduction, and if so, for how long a time. The myriads of *filariae* that are probably daily reproduced in the body of such a patient as that under Dr. Mackenzie’s care seem to demand such a fact as alternate generations, and also to raise the question as to the time during which the process of reproduction can continue. There is no reason to believe that the embryonic *filariae* in the blood can undergo further development within the human body; indeed, analogy, as well as the remarkable discovery of an intermediate host in the mosquito, are opposed to this notion. Again, *filariae* have been found in the blood apart from chyluria or any outward manifestation of lymphatic derangement; but this is explicable if it be admitted that the adult worms may lodge in other parts of the body in communication with blood vessels alone. Conversely, chyluria may exist without *filaria*, and the case mentioned by Dr. Mackenzie, where the parasite was found in the man’s blood in India, but could not be found when he came to England, is explicable on the view that though the parent organism might have perished, or yielded no more embryos, yet the change excited by its presence in the lymphatic channels, and therefore the chyluria, might still have persisted.

The precise mechanism of chyluria still requires to be explained, and until it is elucidated an important part of the subject will remain obscure. The question of the pathology of chyluria was, however, barely touched upon on Tuesday, Dr. Mackenzie limiting himself to the statement of the facts observed in his case; the most important in connection with the urine being that besides having all the chylous characters, it invariably contained more or less blood,—that passed by day containing more blood and *filaria*, that passed by night being more milky; and that *filariae* were found in it, especially in connection with blood coagula. The most remarkable feature of the whole case lay in the periodicity shown by the *filariae* in their time of appearance in the blood. During the whole period of the man’s stay in the hospital his blood had been examined regularly every three hours, with the constant result that, by night, the *filariae* abounded and by day were entirely absent. From 9 A. M. to 9 P. M. they were absent; they appeared at the latter hour and increased up to midnight, then decreased till at the first-named hour none were found. These observations entirely confirmed those of Manson, and particular stress was laid upon their nocturnal wanderings and the habits of the mosquito. It is certainly singular that the time selected by the mosquito should coincide with the presence of the parasite in the blood stream, and the connection of these two facts is not the least wonderful chapter in the life-history of the parasite. But whatever the explanation of the periodicity—Dr. Vandyke Carter pointed out that it was not invariable,—a valuable addition to our knowledge of it has been made by Dr. Mackenzie. He found that whereas the time of ingestion of food bears no relation to it, it is otherwise with the

time of rest and sleep, for when the patient was up during the night and slept during the day the period of filarial migration was similarly inverted. Dr. Mackenzie did not venture to speculate upon these curious points. He wisely contented himself with laying the facts he had observed before the Pathological Society.—*Lancet*.

A VERY REMARKABLE METEOR.

On the evening of Wednesday the 16th, while sweeping the western heavens in search of comets, I was startled by a brilliant illumination to my right; looking up hastily, a bright meteor was seen moving rapidly along the north-eastern heavens. It started from a point about 3° north of Capella, and, traversing a path of about 10° , passed some 2° above *delta Aurigæ*. The flight of the meteor did not exceed three seconds, when it burst with a dazzling brilliancy, to be compared only to the whiteness of the electric light. At the moment of exploding it must have been at least five or six times brighter than Venus at her maximum. There remained in its wake—covering the full extent of its path—a thin reddish train; this drifted slowly among the stars towards the north-east, gradually collecting into a lightish cloud at its N.E. end. Noting the remarkable permanency of the train, I turned the telescope (a 5-inch refractor) upon it, and was surprised to see a very brightly glowing mass of pinkish smoke; the same material lay stretching out toward the southwest in a long, straggling strip; this trail was about one-fourth a degree in thickness, and could plainly be seen with the telescope for a distance of at least ten degrees. This mass of smoke drifted northeasterly over the stars, curling slowly, like a mighty serpent. It was knotted in several places with cumulous forms which were due probably to minor explosions in the meteor. The outlines of this wonderful train of celestial smoke were well defined; it did not diffuse itself in the atmosphere, but faded gradually from view. During the whole of its visibility it retained its pinkish color. The appearance of the meteor was at 48m. past 6. The train remained visible to the naked eye for about six minutes. In the telescope it was very distinct up to seven o’clock. At three minutes after seven it was still visible in the instrument. Meanwhile it had drifted about 4° to the north-east, becoming more crooked each moment as it curled about in the air. The remarkable duration of the train of smoke from this meteor—over fifteen minutes—deserves being recorded.

E. E. BARNARD.

NASHVILLE, Tenn., November 21, 1881.

INSTRUCTIONS ISSUED BY THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE FOR THE OBSERVATION OF THE TRANSIT OF VENUS OF 1882.

Contributed by M. BENJAMIN, Ph. D.

ARTICLE I.—It is desirable, from a theoretical standpoint, that the telescopes used should be of as large aperture as possible. In practice, the difficulty of transportation on the one hand, and the necessity of observers at different stations having similar instruments, limits the apertures to from 0.12 metre to 0.15 metre (about $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 inches).

In all cases the objectives should be as perfect as possible. Observers should give an exact description of the quality and defects of the objective, as also the eye-piece employed. Towards this end they should determine:

1. The form of the image of a good star in focus, as also the image of the same star at a point before and after coming into focus.
2. The separating power of the objective for double stars.

It will be useful to know also if the telescope is able to show the solar granulations on any favorable opportu-